Father Emotion Socialization and Children's Emotion Regulation

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Abstract

The ability to regulate emotional responses is an important skill for children to acquire that can be beneficial in school settings and social interactions. Although links between maternal socialization and child emotion regulation are established, little is known about effects of father emotion socialization on children's development of emotion regulation. This study examined the association between father emotion socialization and children's emotion regulation in early childhood. Three-year-old children (N = 40) participated in a series of emotion-eliciting tasks in a research lab and carried an iPod Touch that recorded their activities and conversations in naturalistic home settings on a "typical weekend day." Audio recordings of home activities were coded for fathers' presence, attempts to comfort children's negative emotions, labeling of children's emotions and yelling at children. Children's positive and negative affective expressions were coded from the laboratory of the Elmo task where they played with an Elmo with their mothers. Regression analysis showed: (1) Father's positive mood was associated with children's positive mood in the home setting (β = 0.41, p = 0.01); (2) Father emotion coaching was negatively associated with child negative mood in the naturalistic setting (β = -0.31, p = 0.05); and (3) Father negative mood was associated with more expressed fear when playing with a Tickle-Me-Elmo in a lab setting (β = 0.42, p = 0.01). These findings suggest that fathers play an important role in children's emotion socialization. This highlights the importance of high quality fathering.

Father Emotion Socialization and Children's Emotion Regulation

Emotion regulation is defined as the internal and external processes involved in maintaining and modulating the occurrence, intensity and expression of emotions (Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers & Robinson, 2007). Emotion regulation skills are learned throughout the lifetime beginning at a very young age. Early childhood is an important developmental period where children learn emotion regulation skills (Morris et al., 2007). These skills are useful in almost all social contexts; the ability to manage emotions in a socially acceptable and appropriate way is of paramount importance to successfully function in society. Children with larger emotional vocabularies have more effective emotional self-regulation strategies (Slatcher & Trentacosta, 2011), additionally children with better emotion regulation are better able to function in the social environment of the school. Children with better emotion regulation also are better able to function effectively in the academic environment of school (Onchwari & Keengwe, 2011). Children who were rated higher by teachers in terms of emotion regulation were more able to demonstrate appropriate behavior in social settings (Onchwari & Keengwe, 2011).

The process of teaching emotion regulation and related skills is referred to as emotion socialization. During early childhood, parents are primary socialization agents.. This study will investigate the impact that father emotion socialization has on children's emotion regulation. Father emotion socialization has not been regarded as important until, at the earliest, the late 1970's (McBride & Mills, 1993). Because of recent importance placed on father's role, there has been more research done on father involvement in child development; however, little attention has been focused on fathers' role in early emotional development. The goal of this study is to further the knowledge of the impact of father emotion socialization on children's emotion regulation.

There are a number of factors to consider concerning the learning of emotion regulation in children. There are many different ways that children can learn emotion regulation skills, some are explicit, parents directly teach emotion regulations skills, and others are more observational, children learn the emotion regulation skills through watching their parents. An effective theory to examine emotion socialization through is The Tripartite model of the impact of the Family on Children's Emotion Regulation; the Tripartite model will serve as the theoretical model for this study (Morris et al., 2007). It considers several factors and different ways of learning emotion regulation that nearly all children use. The model states that emotion regulation is learned through three processes: observation/modeling, parenting practices and the emotional climate of the family (Morris et al., 2007). Observation can be thought of as learning emotion regulation through watching parent's emotion expression. Parenting practices are more direct teaching of emotion regulation, where the intent is to teach children about emotion regulation and expression. Emotional climate of the family includes parenting style, relationship, and attachment styles in the family. This model takes into account the reciprocal relationship between emotion regulation and the ways that emotion regulation is taught. It also considers the child and parent characteristics and the interplay among these characteristics and emotion regulation.

Most of the previous research on child emotion regulation focuses on mothers as the primary socialization agent. Maternal emotion socialization has been shown to affect children's emotion expression (Morris et al., 2007). Children of mothers who express more emotion are more emotionally expressive themselves; additionally mothers who taught their children more effective ways to deal with emotions had children who were better at dealing with their own emotions (Denham & Grout, 1992). Maternal depression has been well established to have

negative effects on mothers' parenting practices, family emotional climate, as well as children's outcomes (Slatcher & Trentacosta, 2011). Depressed mothers have also been shows to be less likely to engage in preventive parenting practices; they are less likely to teach their children emotion regulation and social skills (Kahn, Brandt & Whitaker, 2004). Approximately 13% of women experience some form of postpartum depression (Ramchandani, Psychogiou, Vlachos, Iles, Sethna et al., 2011). This high percentage indicates that a great number of children will have mothers who are experiencing or have experienced depression sometime during the child's life. Emotion regulation, cognitive, and behavioral difficulties all increase in frequency among children of depressed mothers compared to their non-depressed counterparts. Children with depressed mothers are much more likely to be reported to engage in externalizing and internalizing behaviors among other challenging behaviors (Chang, Halpern, & Kaufman, 2007). The frequency of problem behaviors increased over time and persisted longer among children of depressed mothers compared to non-depressed mothers (Chang et al., 2007). These behaviors often persisted into adulthood and typically did not improve over time.

While much research has focused on the effect of mothers' emotion socialization on children, there has been comparatively little research focused on the effects of father emotion socialization on the development of children of depressed mothers. The role of the father in child rearing has a history of being relegated to a background position. This secondary parenting role paradigm, relative to that of the mother, was particularly prominent prior to the late 1970s (McBride & Mills, 1993). Fathers have traditionally been expected to have a less involved role in child rearing but research has shown that fathers can have a significant impact on the development of children (McBride & Mills, 1993). In a research review 17 of 18 studies focusing on the effects of father involvement reported positive effects on children's emotion

regulation (Sarkadi, Kristiansson, Oberklaid, & Bremberg, 2008). Higher levels of father involvement and emotion socialization have been associated with lower levels of problem behaviors in children of depressed mothers. This could be a result of more involved fathers modeling positive behavior management and emotion regulation for their children (Chang, Halpern & Kaufman, 2007). Fathers can compensate in all three aspects of the Tripartite model in cases where mothers may be lacking.

Fathers have been found to have a particularly strong effect on children of depressed mothers when compared to children of non-depressed mothers (Mezulis, Hyde & Clark, 2004). Higher levels of father involvement and emotion socialization are also related to less internalizing behaviors in the children of depressed mothers (Mezulis, Hyde & Clark, 2004). This same relationship was not present in children of non-depressed mothers, father involvement and emotion socialization had little to no effect on children of non-depressed mothers (Mezulis, Hyde & Clark, 2004).

Several studies have shown fathers to have a large impact on children's outcomes in addition to mothers (Chang et al., 2007). The father's depressive state is also related to children's outcomes with 5-10 % of fathers experiencing depression that is unrelated to maternal depression (Ramchandani et al., 2011). Depression among fathers has been shown to have a negative effect on children's outcomes with similar results found with depressed mothers (Ramchandani et al., 2011).

Children of fathers who report higher levels of involvement and emotion socialization have a decreased likelihood of problem behaviors (Chang et al., 2007). Therefore, it is even more important to emphasize the value of father emotion socialization. Higher levels of positive father involvement have been shown to decrease the likelihood of children engaging in problematic

behaviors (Chang et al., 2007). Fathers appear to be able to help compensate for depressed mothers' generally decreased level of functioning as well as their lack of ability to be emotionally available (Chang et al., 2007). Father involvement has also been associated with increased language and cognitive skills with children aged 2 and 3 years accounting for maternal engagement (Cabrera, Shannon & Tamis-LeMonda, 2007).

Father engagement has also been linked to increased emotional regulation among children aged 2 years; maternal engagement did not affect emotional regulation among this same group (Cabrera et al., 2007). This suggests that positive father emotion socialization could provide benefits that cannot be achieved in any other way. Family income made very little difference on children's emotional regulation after pre-kindergarten (Cabrera et al., 2007). This shows father involvement and emotion socialization can have an effect above and beyond socioeconomic status, particularly among fathers with at least a high school education (Cabrera et al., 2007). Maternal intrusiveness, over-controlling and over-involved parenting, has also been associated with less emotional regulation; conversely father intrusiveness did not seem to have any effect on emotional regulation (Cabrera et al., 2007). This suggests that there may be unique advantages to father's emotion coaching. Father's positive parenting offers a variety of benefits for children both in the immediate future and in their more distant adolescent and adult lives.

What constitutes positive father involvement and emotion socialization is a topic that has been difficult to define for researchers (Sarkadi et al., 2008). As previously mentioned higher levels of father involvement and emotion socialization have been associated with positive outcomes for children, sometimes offering unique benefits (Cabrera et al., 2007). Therefore it is important to study and determine the optimal level of father emotion socialization. Additional studies are needed to determine this ideal level as well as how fathers can best interact with their

children to support positive outcomes. Father emotion socialization has benefits throughout life in a number of domains (Sarkadi et al., 2008). These domains include: cognitive functioning, emotional functioning, and social skills and functioning and decrease problematic behaviors (Chang et al., 2007; Cabrera et al., 2007).

This study focused on father emotion coaching strategies and the effect of father mood on children's emotion regulation and mood. The strategy that fathers used when coaching emotion was examined, such as: distraction, reasoning, problem solving and emotion labeling. Father and child mood were also investigated as part of this study. Additionally the study observed the effects of father time spent with their children in naturalistic settings.

The goal of this study is to observe the effect of father emotion coaching and father mood on emotion regulation and mood among preschool-age children. Additionally this study will examine if maternal depression and father emotion socialization jointly contribute to children's acquisition of emotion regulation skills and strategies. For the purposes of this study father emotion coaching is defined as fathers' explicit instruction to their children regarding emotion regulation and management. Emotion regulation is defined as the ability for children to control their emotional expression at socially appropriate levels. Previous studies have found that children who receive more emotion coaching have a better understanding of their emotions (Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1996). Additionally children who receive more emotion coaching are rated by their teachers as having a greater level of proficiency in social interactions; they seem to have a better understanding of their emotions and better emotion regulation (Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1996). I hypothesize that children of fathers who teach more emotion regulation strategies have higher levels of emotion regulation; additionally child mood will directly relate to father mood.

Methods

Participants

Participants of this study were drawn from a larger longitudinal study that investigates maternal depression and children's emotion regulation. Participants of the larger study were recruited from daycares, mental health clinics, online through Craigslist, and communities in the Columbus Ohio area. To meet eligibility requirements mothers needed to be 21-years or older, have a child between the ages of 3 and 3.5 years, and have no history of psychiatric disorders other than depressive disorders. Children who had developmental disorders or delays were excluded. Mothers and their children completed a 2-hour laboratory assessment, a home assessment, and mothers also completed questionnaires.

In the current study, 40 children who completed both the lab and home assessment and who were living with both parents were included. Child ages ranged from 3.01 and 3.66 years with a mean of 3.17 years (SD = 0.17); 57.5% of children were female and 42.5% of children were male. Mothers ranged in age from 21 years to 43 years with a mean of 30.90 years (SD = 5.77). A majority of mothers were White (75 %) and African American (17.5 %), and 5 % of mothers identified as Native American or Alaska native. Sixty percent of the mothers had at least a 4 year college degree, and 15 % had a high school degree or less. The majority of fathers (55.3%) had at least a 4 year college degree, and 15.8% had a high school degree or less. About 82.5% of fathers were currently employed at the time of recording. Approximately 17.5% of families earned less than $20,000 in annual household income, placing them below the federal poverty line.

Procedures

Children's daily activities and interactions with parents in the naturalistic home settings were gathered through an automated recording device. Children wore an iPod Touch during a typical weekend day. The iPod Touch was programed to be automatically turned on for 1 minute every 10 minutes. The participants being recorded were not aware when the iPod began and stopped recording. Mothers were also asked to keep an event diary for their child, containing information regarding what events (e.g. going to the park) the child experienced during the day. The event diary also included information regarding who else was present or interacting with the child during each event. The event diary was kept in 30 minute increments, starting from when the child woke up and ending at when the child went to sleep; the event diary collected at the same time the recording device was collected. The audio recordings in the naturalistic settings were transcribed verbatim, and each conversation and utterance by the child and father was coded for fathers' mood and emotion coaching and child's mood.

The mothers are asked to come, with their child, into a research lab located on the Columbus campus of The Ohio State University. They are asked to complete a series of tasks; this study will focus on the mother and child playing with a Tickle-Me-Elmo during the lab visit. The interaction is video-taped and later coded second by second for emotion expressions. Mothers are also asked to complete several questionnaires on their depressive state and demographic characteristics.

Measures

Father mood codes from the audio recordings contained the following codes: positive, yelling, crying, sighing, and singing. Child mood codes included: positive, singing, sighing, crying, whining, and yelling. Singing was only coded if it was an indicator of positive mood, if the singing was contrived in some way, for example as part a religious ceremony, it was not

coded. Positive coding could be laughing, excitement, or general positivity in the speaker's tone of voice. Fathers were also coded for emotion coaching including: emotion labeling, reasoning, dismissal, and discussing cause of emotions. Coded mood variables were grouped together by positive (singing, positive/laughing) and negative (crying, whining, yelling, and sighing). This was done as a result of the difficulty of determining the internal emotion that caused the affect expression (i.e. is the child crying because he is sad or mad). Different levels of the same emotion coaching strategy were grouped together; these variables were then run through regression analysis to see the effects of father emotion coaching on affect expression (see appendix A for a complete list of codes).

Emotion coding for the mother-child interaction task (Tickle me Elmo) has been completed for all 40 of the eligible participants. Four discrete emotion expressions were coded second by second for the child, positive emotion, anger/frustration, fear, and sadness, and three (positive, anger, sadness) are coded second by second for the mother. Positive codes included: smiling, laughing, or positive tone. Anger/frustration included: yelling, hitting objects, and frustrated facial expressions; sadness codes included: crying, whimpering, moaning, and pouting/sad facial expression. Fear code included: retreating from an objects and high pitched screaming. The emotions were coded by a number of different coders, and inter-coder reliability is checked at over a 50% rate.

Maternal depression was also measured using both the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II; Beck, Steer, Ball, & Ranieri, 1996) and the Center for Epidemiologic Studies National Institute of Mental Health scale (CES-D; Raldoff, 1977). Both are well established measures of depression that yield quantitative scores.

Data Analysis

To investigate the associations between father mood and emotion coaching and child emotion regulation, regression analyses were conducted. In each regression analysis child emotion regulation variables (i.e., positive mood, negative mood, and fear) was the dependent variable, fathers' mood and emotion coaching were the independent variable, and mother's depressive symptoms (CES-D scores) was included as a covariate. The significance level was set at $p < 0.05$ for each analysis.

Results

Table 1 contains means and standard deviations as well as bivariate correlations of all variables included in the analysis. Two bivariate correlations were significant at the 0.01 level: father negative mood with child fear during Elmo, and child positive with child negative mood. Child positive mood and father positive mood were significant at the 0.05 level. No other variables reached significance at the 0.01 or 0.05 level, however, child negative mood and father emotion label was significant when regression analysis controlled for maternal depression. CESD scores are maternal depressive symptoms, data on father depression was not collected

Father positive mood and child positive mood had a correlation coefficient of 0.39; the CES-D and child positive mood had a correlation coefficient of -0.07. The frequency of child positive codes in a single recording ranged from 1 to 31, with a mean of 14.5 (SD = 7.26); father positive codes ranged from occurring 0 times to 12, with a mean of 2.13 (SD = 2.99). Maternal CES-D scores ranged from 2 to 46 with a mean of 16.15 (SD = 13.70).

The correlation coefficient between father emotion coaching and child negative mood was -0.29; for CES-D and child negative mood the correlation coefficient was -0.28. Child negative mood codes ranged from occurring 0 times to occurring 20 times in a single recording

with a mean of 7.55 (SD = 5.27). Father emotion labeling the single most effective strategy ranged in occurrence from 0 times to 3 times, occurring a mean of 0.25 time (SD = 0.63); most fathers employed a range of emotion coaching strategies.

Father negative mood had a correlation coefficient of 0.43 with expressed child fear during the Elmo task; CES-D had a correlation coefficient of 0.10 with expressed child fear during Elmo. Father negative mood occurred as few as (0) times and as many as (4) times, with a mean of 0.3 (SD = 0.72).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of study variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Father Positive Mood	2.13	2.99						
2. Father Negative Mood	0.30	0.72	0.03					
3. Father Emotion Coaching	0.25	0.63	-0.04	-0.11				
4. Child Negative Mood	7.55	5.27	0.17	0.16	-0.29			
5. Child Positive Mood	14.5	7.26	0.39*	0.07	-0.18	.45**		
6. Child fear during Elmo	1.26	3.12	0.10	0.41**	-0.161	-0.04	0.09	
7. Maternal depressive symptoms	16.15	13.69	0.16	0.21	-0.05	-0.28	-0.07	0.09

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Father Positive Mood and Child Positive Mood

The regression analysis (shown in table 2) showed that father positive mood was associated with child positive mood in a naturalistic setting (β = .41, p = 0.01), indicating that fathers who are more positive have children who are also more positive in terms of affect expression. This also suggests that fathers have an impact on their child's mood, at least having an effect on child's positive mood with their own positive mood. Maternal depressive symptoms was unrelated to child positive mood (β = -0.14, p = 0.37).

Table 2. Regression analysis on child positive mood in the home setting

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Father Positive Mood	1.01	0.37	0.41	2.73	0.01
Maternal Depressive Symptoms	-0.07	0.08	-0.14	-0.90	0.37

Father Emotion Coaching and Child Negative Mood

The second regression analysis (shown in table 3) conducted showed that father emotion coaching was negatively associated with child negative mood in a naturalistic setting (β = -0.31, p = 0.05). This suggests that fathers who label emotions for their children teach larger emotion vocabularies, which is beneficial for emotion regulation (Slatcher & Trentacosta, 2011). Children with larger emotion vocabularies are less likely to become frustrated as a result of not having the words to describe their emotions or feelings, which results in less negative emotions expressed by these children. Additionally emotion coaching from fathers is in general beneficial for children's emotion socialization giving children many more effective and socially appropriate ways of dealing with their emotions.

Maternal depression was unrelated to child negative mood expression (β = -0.30, p = 0.06). While this does not meet the p = 0.05 significance level it does approach the required significance level. This result is marginally significant and is the only maternal variable to approach or reach significance. This result is likely to become significant with a larger sample size, as the sample for this study had only 40 participants.

Table 3. Regression analysis on child negative mood in the home setting

	B	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*
Father Emotion Coaching	-2.55	1.25	-0.31	-2.03	0.05
Maternal CESD	-0.11	0.06	-0.30	-1.98	0.06

Father Negative Mood and Child Fear

The third and final regression analysis (shown in table 4) conducted showed father negative mood was associated with expressed child fear while playing with a Tickle-Me-Elmo in a lab setting with their mother (β = 0.42, p = 0.01). This suggests that fathers who express more negative mood in the presence of their children have children who themselves express more negative moods. Children who see their father express more negative moods appear to have a more difficult time dealing with and moderating the expression of their own negative moods. Maternal depression was unrelated to child fear (β = 0.03, p = 0.86).

Table 4. Regression analysis on child fear in the lab setting

Model	*B*	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*
Father Negative Mood	1.82	1.25	0.42	2.72	0.01
Maternal CESD	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.18	0.86

Discussion

This study examined the effect of father emotion coaching and mood on child mood and affect expression. It was hypothesized that fathers who engage in more emotion coaching activities will have children who have better emotion regulation, additionally it was predicted that child mood and father mood would relate to each other directly. The hypothesis was partially supported; one specific father emotion coaching strategy was related with better emotion regulation in children and father mood was generally a good predictor of child mood. However, other emotion coaching strategies did not seem to be as effective at predicting the emotion regulation levels of the children.

Father positive mood was related with child positive mood, this was an expected result. This result indicates that fathers can have an effect on their children's mood, even considering maternal depression factors. This also highlights the importance of high quality parenting, it was not enough for fathers to simply be present in their children's lives, father mood was associated with child mood indicating that fathers' actions matter. This also contradicts the common assumption that fathers should be figures of authority, without feelings, in their children's lives. The Tripartite model of the impact of the Family on Children's Emotion Regulation suggests that children can learn emotion regulation through observing their parents (Morris et al., 2007). The reported relationship between father positive mood and child positive mood suggests that the children in this study learned emotion regulation skills from the father, even when not being directly taught. There is an indication, and Morris' model supports the assertion, that parents can and do teach emotion regulation skills to their children through the modeling of their own emotion regulation skills and strategy (Morris et al., 2007).

The relationship between expressed child fear in the lab setting and father negative mood suggests further highlights the importance of high quality parenting. This finding suggests that fathers can have a negative impact on their children, even if they spend time with them. Once again this shows that father presence is not all that is required for children's emotion regulation skills to develop. This finding in combination with the finding that father positive mood further supports the notion that high quality parenting is valuable. This interaction could be viewed as coming from two aspects of the Tripartite model, observational practices and emotional climate of the family (Morris et al., 2007). Fathers who express more negative moods influence their children's emotion regulation through the child's observational practices similar to the interaction between father positive mood and child positive mood. Additionally fathers who express more negative moods may create a less effective emotional climate for teaching emotion regulation. These fathers may seem to have a more negative relationship with their children and family as a unit. This may influence their children to express more negative moods and experience more negative emotions, such as the fear seen in the lab setting (Morris et al., 2007).

Father emotion coaching being negatively associated with child negative expression was a suggested result of the Tripartite model (Morris et al., 2007). This result could suggest that children who hear more emotion words and are better able to describe their feelings are less likely to get frustrated and express negativity. These children have a greater ability to express themselves in a socially appropriate way when they are experiencing emotions and as a result have better emotion regulation skills. They also may have more strategies for the internal regulation of emotion as a result of the emotion coaching they receive from their fathers. The Tripartite model would also suggest that emotion coaching could be an effective emotion socialization technique. The parenting practice of emotion coaching increases a child's emotional

vocabulary granting the child a greater ability to express themselves and a decreased likelihood to become frustrated and express negative emotions (Slatcher & Trentacosta, 2011; Morris et al., 2007). This also shows that emotion coaching by fathers can have an effect on children, as discussed previously the traditional thought is that mothers are the agents of emotion socialization but these results suggest that fathers can also have an effect on children's emotion socialization (Denham & Grout, 1992).

Limitations

This study has a clear weakness, it only has 40 participants. This is in part because of the limited number of families who are willing to wear the recording device, and partly because in some families resident fathers were not present during the home assessment. In addition this sample is highly educated and has an overrepresentation of racially White parents/children. Additionally information on father race, and father age was not collected, further limiting the demographic information that is available to control for. However, the study also has some strengths; primary among these is the naturalistic observation that the data is drawn from. Additionally the naturalistic data is collected in an unobtrusive way, limiting any bias that is created by an observer.

Future Directions

Future studies could be focused on longitudinal effects of father emotion coaching on children emotion regulation, perhaps considering school success. Additionally future studies could examine social class and/or racial differences of father emotion coaching with a more diverse sample. Studies could also examine the most effective emotion coaching strategies that can be employed by parents or fathers. In this study the single most effective emotion coaching strategy is emotion labeling but future studies could examine if this effect is universal, and if it

stays consistent as children grow older and likely already know the names of emotions. Finally the mechanisms by which father emotion coaching strategies teach emotion regulation could be further explored.

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Appendix A: Coding Manual for Naturalistic Observations

Mood Codes

Mood		
Target Child Codes:		
CP	***Positive***	1 = target child laughing, or in an excitement
CSG	***Singing***	1 = target child singing/humming (*Note:* only coded as an indicator of positive mood)
CSH	***Sighing***	1 = target child sighing
CCR	***Crying***	1 = target child crying
CW	***Whining***	1 = target child whining
CY	***Yelling***	1 = target child yelling
Parent Code: (Note: use the parent codes for the mother and the alternative caregiver)		
ML/FL	***Laughing***	1 = parent laughing
MSG/FSG	***Singing***	1 = parent singing or whistling
MSH/FSH	***Sighing***	1 = parent sighing
MCR/FCR	***Crying***	1 = parent crying
MY/FY	***Yelling***	1 = parent yelling

Emotion Coaching		
CED	***Emotional Disclosure from Target Child***	1 = target child shares feelings and emotions with another person—family or friend
MED/FED	***Emotional Disclosure from parent***	1 = parent shares feelings and emotions with the target child
MEL/FEL	***Parental Emotion Labeling***	0 = no emotional label from parent 1 = parent labels child's emotion 2 = parent describes how the child felt and how the child reacted/did with that emotion
MDC/FDC	***Parent Discusses Cause of Emotion***	1 = if parent discusses the cause of the current emotions with the target child
MAE/FAE	***Parent Asks Child to Elaborate His/Her Emotions***	Facilitates discourse. Example: How did you feel when that happened? What happened after you were sad? 0 = doesn't 1 = probes with questions

		2 = gets answers, and if not, guides them to agreed understanding
MAC/FAC	***Parent Acceptance/ Comfort/Empathy***	Example: Yes, you are sad. 0 = no responses 1 = acknowledge 2 = if the parent accepts child negative emotions 3 = if parent comforts the child.
MPT/FPT	***Parent Problem Solving***	Helping in coming up with coping strategies in situations that elicit stress 0 = no 1 = gives suggestions or help the child to solve the problem
MT/FT	***Parent Teaching***	Helping in understanding/thinking of coping strategies Examples: Can you think of anything that would have made it easier? What could you do next time you are sad? 0 = no 1 = gives suggestions without asking child for input 2 = asks them to come up with strategies 3 = asks them to come up with strategies and discusses own suggestions of strategies
MR/FR	***Parent Reasoning***	1 = gives a reason that the child's desire cannot be accomplished, to pacify the child
MD/FD	***Parent Distraction of Child***	1 = parent distracts target child from sources of distress
CLV/MLV/FLV	***Love expressions***	1 = gives love expressions to family members, e.g. "I love you" "give me a hug"
MDS/FDS	***Parent Dismissing of Child's Emotions***	0 = no dismissing; the parent gives a certain kind of response to child emotions 1 = if the parent dismisses/ignores the child emotions, not caring about it 2 = if the parent criticizes/punishes the child's emotions, e.g. "That's not fun at all, you stupid child"
MNG/FNG	***Parent Neglecting of Child's Emotions***	1 = if the parent neglects the child emotions.